

MA 16200

Study Guide - Exam # 3

- (1) Sequences; limits of sequences; Limit Laws for Sequences; Squeeze Theorem; monotone sequences; bounded sequences; Monotone Sequence Theorem.
- (2) Infinite series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$; sequence of partial sums $s_n = \sum_{k=1}^n a_k$; the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ converges to s if its sequence of partial sums $s_n \rightarrow s$.

(3) **GEOMETRIC SERIES:**

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} ar^{n-1} = a + ar + ar^2 + ar^3 + \cdots = a(1 + r + r^2 + r^3 + \cdots) = \frac{a}{1-r}, \text{ if } |r| < 1.$$

The Geometric Series diverges if $|r| \geq 1$.

- (4) **p - SERIES:** $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^p}$ converges when $p > 1$; diverges when $p \leq 1$.

- (5) **HARMONIC SERIES:** $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$ diverges.

- (6) LIST OF CONVERGENCE TESTS FOR $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$:

- 0 Divergence Test
- 1 Integral Test
- 2 Comparison Test
- 3 Limit Comparison Test
- 4 Alternating Series Test
- 5 Ratio Test
- 6 Root Test

(A useful inequality: $\ln x < x^\alpha$, for any fixed constant $\alpha \geq \frac{1}{2}$.)

(7) **STRATEGY FOR CONVERGENCE/DIVERGENCE OF INFINITE SERIES :**

Usually first look at the form of the series $\sum a_n$:

- (i) If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \neq 0$ or DNE, then use **Divergence Test**.
- (ii) If series is a p -Series $\sum \frac{1}{n^p}$, use p -Series conclusions; if series is a Geometric series $\sum ar^{n-1}$, use *Geometric Series* conclusions.
- (iii) If $\sum a_n$ looks like a p -Series or Geometric series, use **Comparison Test** or **Limit Comparison Test**.
- (iv) If a_n involves factorials, use **Ratio Test**.
- (v) If a_n involves n^{th} powers, use **Root Test**.
- (vi) If $\sum a_n$ is an alternating series, use **Alternating Series Test** (or use **Ratio/Root Test** to show absolute convergence).
- (vii) The last resort is usually to use the **Integral Test**.

CONVERGENCE TESTS

0 DIVERGENCE TEST: If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \neq 0$ or limit does not exist $\implies \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ diverges

1 INTEGRAL TEST: Suppose $f(x)$ is continuous, decreasing, and positive on $[1, \infty)$ and $f(n) = a_n$.

(i) If $\int_1^{\infty} f(x) dx$ converges $\implies \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ converges.

(ii) If $\int_1^{\infty} f(x) dx$ diverges $\implies \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ diverges.

(i.e., the infinite series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ converges if and only if the improper integral $\int_1^{\infty} f(x) dx$ converges.)

2 COMPARISON TEST: Suppose $\sum a_n$ and $\sum b_n$ are series with $a_n, b_n > 0$.

(i) If $a_n \leq b_n$ for all n and $\sum b_n$ converges $\implies \sum a_n$ converges.

(ii) If $a_n \geq b_n$ for all n and $\sum b_n$ diverges $\implies \sum a_n$ diverges.

3 LIMIT COMPARISON TEST: Suppose $\sum a_n$ and $\sum b_n$ are series with $a_n, b_n > 0$.
If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = c$, where $0 < c < \infty$, then either both series converge or both diverge.

4 ALTERNATING SERIES TEST: Given an alternating series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} b_n$.

If $\begin{cases} b_n > 0 \\ \{b_n\} \text{ is a decreasing sequence,} \\ \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = 0 \end{cases}$ then the alternating series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} b_n$ converges.

5 RATIO TEST: Let $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = L$.

(i) If $L < 1 \implies \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ converges absolutely, hence converges.

(ii) If $L > 1 \implies \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ diverges.

(If $L = 1$, then test is *inconclusive*, try another convergence test.)

6 ROOT TEST: Let $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|a_n|} = L$.

(i) If $L < 1 \implies \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ converges absolutely, hence converges.

(ii) If $L > 1 \implies \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ diverges.

(If $L = 1$, then test is *inconclusive*, try another convergence test.)

(8) Alternating series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} b_n$; *Estimating Alternating Series* : If $b_n > 0$, $\{b_n\}$ is decreasing, and $b_n \rightarrow 0$ and if $s = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} b_n$, then $|s - s_n| \leq b_{n+1}$

(9) Absolute convergence of $\sum a_n$ (i.e. $\sum |a_n|$ converges). Conditional convergence (i.e., $\sum a_n$ converges, but $\sum |a_n|$ diverges);

NOTE: Absolute Convergence of $\sum a_n \implies$ Convergence of $\sum a_n$

(i.e., If $\sum |a_n|$ converges, then $\sum a_n$ converges).

(10) Power series about a : $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n (x - a)^n$; **Radius of Convergence (ROC)** and **Interval of Convergence (IOC)**; usually use Ratio Test (or Root Test) to determine **ROC** and **IOC**.

IMPORTANT: To find complete IOC, don't forget to check the endpoints of the interval !

(11) Operations on power series: multiplication, differentiation, integration of power series.

(12) Taylor Series about a : $f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} (x - a)^n$.

(13) Maclaurin Series: $f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!} x^n$ (i.e., Taylor Series about 0).

(14) n^{th} - degree Taylor polynomial: $T_n = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{f^{(k)}(a)}{k!} (x - a)^k \approx f(x)$, near $x = a$.

(15) Binomial Series: $(1 + x)^k = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \binom{k}{n} x^n$, where $\binom{k}{n} = \frac{k!}{n!(k-n)!}$.

(16) Useful Maclaurin Series

$$(a) \quad \frac{1}{1-x} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \cdots, \quad \text{valid for } -1 < x < 1$$

$$(b) \quad e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!} = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \cdots, \quad \text{valid for } -\infty < x < \infty$$

$$(c) \quad \sin x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!} = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \frac{x^7}{7!} + \cdots, \quad \text{valid for } -\infty < x < \infty$$

$$(d) \quad \cos x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n}}{(2n)!} = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{x^6}{6!} + \cdots, \quad \text{valid for } -\infty < x < \infty$$

$$(e) \quad \tan^{-1} x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)} = x - \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^5}{5} - \frac{x^7}{7} + \cdots, \quad \text{valid for } -1 < x < 1$$

$$(f) \quad (1+x)^k = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \binom{k}{n} x^n = 1 + kx + \frac{k(k-1)}{2!} x^2 + \frac{k(k-1)(k-2)}{3!} x^3 + \cdots, \text{ for } -1 < x < 1$$

(17) Parametric Curves. $C : \begin{cases} x = x(t) \\ y = y(t) \end{cases}$; sketching parametric curves; tangents to curves;

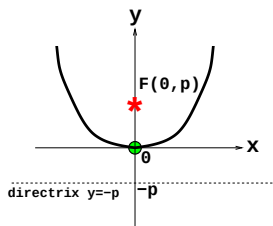
$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{\frac{dy}{dt}}{\frac{dx}{dt}} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \frac{d}{dx} \left(\frac{dy}{dx} \right) = \frac{\frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{dy}{dx} \right)}{\frac{dx}{dt}}, \quad \text{provided} \quad \frac{dx}{dt} \neq 0$$

$$\text{Arc length } L = \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} ds, \text{ where } ds = \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{dt} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dt} \right)^2} dt; \text{ Surface Area } S = \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} 2\pi r ds.$$

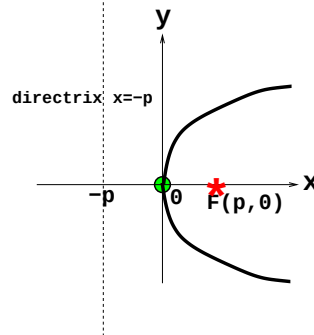
(18) Polar Coordinates. Graphs of polar curves $r = f(\theta)$; symmetry; tangents to polar curves;
polar curves $r = f(\theta)$ written parametrically: $C : \begin{cases} x = f(\theta) \cos \theta \\ y = f(\theta) \sin \theta \end{cases}$.

(19) Conic Sections.

(a) Parabolas: vertex = (0, 0)

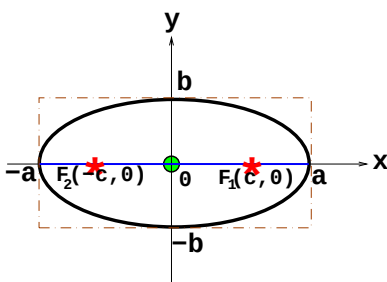


$$x^2 = 4py$$

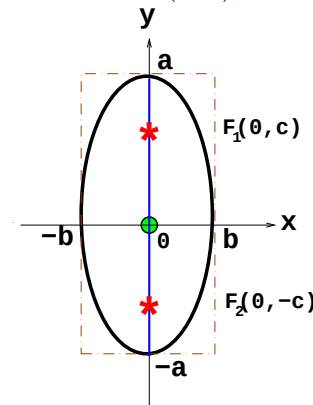


$$y^2 = 4px$$

(b) Ellipses: $a \geq b > 0$; major axis = $2a$; center = (0, 0); $c = \sqrt{a^2 - b^2}$

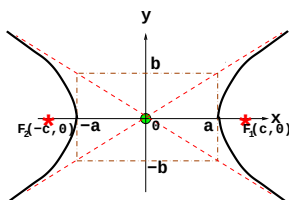


$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$$



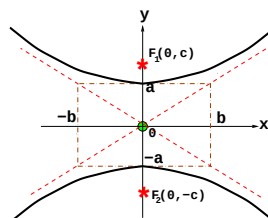
$$\frac{x^2}{b^2} + \frac{y^2}{a^2} = 1$$

(c) Hyperbolas: $a > 0$ and $b > 0$; center = (0, 0); $c = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$



$$\text{asymptotes : } y = \pm \frac{b}{a} x$$

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} - \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$$



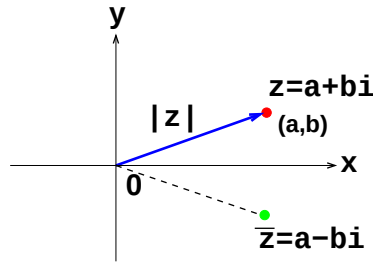
$$\text{asymptotes : } y = \pm \frac{a}{b} x$$

$$\frac{y^2}{a^2} - \frac{x^2}{b^2} = 1$$

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(20) Review of Complex Numbers $\mathbb{C}$

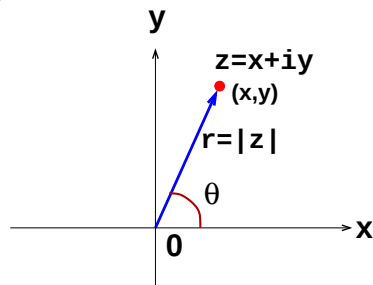
- (a) Complex number $z = a + bi$, where $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and $i = \sqrt{-1}$ (hence $i^2 = -1$). The real number $a = \Re\{z\}$ (the *real part* of z), and the real number $b = \Im\{z\}$ (the *imaginary part* of z); $|z| = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$ is the *modulus* of z ; the *conjugate* of $z = a + bi$ is the complex number $\bar{z} = a - bi$:



- (b) Addition and multiplication of complex numbers.

- (c) Important Identity: $|z|^2 = z \bar{z}$; thus $\frac{1}{z} = \frac{\bar{z}}{|z|^2}$.

- (d) Polar Form of $z = x + iy$:



$$\text{Hence } z = \underbrace{x + iy}_{\text{Rectangular Form}} = \underbrace{(r \cos \theta) + i(r \sin \theta)}_{\text{Polar Form}}$$

$$r = |z| = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \text{ modulus; } \theta = \text{an argument of } z, \text{ where } \tan \theta = \frac{y}{x}.$$

$$\text{Hence if } \begin{cases} z_1 = r_1 (\cos \theta_1 + i \sin \theta_1) \\ z_2 = r_2 (\cos \theta_2 + i \sin \theta_2) \end{cases}, \text{ then } z_1 z_2 = r_1 r_2 (\cos(\theta_1 + \theta_2) + i \sin(\theta_1 + \theta_2))$$

- (e) Recall *Euler's Formula* : $e^{i\theta} = \cos \theta + i \sin \theta$

- (f) Exponential Form of $z = x + iy$:

$$\text{Hence } z = \underbrace{x + iy}_{\text{Rectangular Form}} = \underbrace{(r \cos \theta) + i(r \sin \theta)}_{\text{Polar Form}} = \underbrace{r e^{i\theta}}_{\text{Exponential Form}}$$

- (g) **deMoivre's Law**: If n is an integer (positive or negative), then $(r e^{i\theta})^n = r^n e^{in\theta}$
i.e., $\{r(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)\}^n = r^n (\cos n\theta + i \sin n\theta)$